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Commentary on Identity of Fibroblast Pneumocyte Factor: Rat versus Human

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Running title: Commentary on FPF Rat versus Human

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3 Fetal lung maturation is accelerated by increasing levels of endogenous
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5 glucocorticoids in late gestation and by exogenous corticosteroid treatment in many
6
7 species including the human where antenatal corticosteroid therapy is standard of care
8
9 for premature infants. In their recent review, King et al. (1) address mechanisms
10
11 involved in accelerated appearance of fetal lung type 2 pneumocytes and pulmonary
12
13 surfactant with glucocorticoid treatment and state that “this stimulatory effect is indirect”.
14
15 They review the extensive evidence for the role of lung fibroblasts and release of
16
17 glucocorticoid-induced peptide factor(s) termed fibroblast-pneumonocyte factor (FPF)
18
19 that acts on adjacent epithelial cells to augment synthesis of surfactant phospholipids
20
21 and proteins.
22
23

24
25 It is important to note, however, that the majority of evidence for FPF is in rats
26
27 and relates to synthesis of disaturated phosphatidylcholine (DSPC) as measured by
28
29 incorporation of labeled choline. The response for choline incorporation by fetal rat lung
30
31 epithelial cells, which were isolated from cortisol-treated organotypic cultures, to partially
32
33 purified FPF was rapid and consistent with posttranslational activation of choline-
34
35 phosphate cytidyltransferase contributing to increased PC production (2). In our earlier
36
37 studies with human fetal lung, dexamethasone stimulation of choline incorporation into
38
39 DSPC was similar with explants (~50% fibroblasts) and isolated epithelial cells (~10%
40
41 fibroblasts), suggesting little apparent dose-response effect for fibroblast content (3). In
42
43 the human epithelial cells, dexamethasone (in the presence of cAMP) increased mRNA
44
45 for total of 13 genes related to lipid uptake, biosynthesis and remodeling, indicating that
46
47 induction of surfactant DSPC production and lamellar body formation likely involves
48
49 transcriptional regulation of more proteins than those that participate in the choline
50
51 incorporation pathway (4). Additional studies in human fetal lung, including effects of
52
53 fibroblast conditioned medium and characterization of regulated expression of lipogenic
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3 proteins, are needed to determine possible involvement of FPF in human lung DSPC
4
5 synthesis.
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8 Other studies with human fetal lung indicate that glucocorticoid stimulation of
9
10 some key surfactant-related genes most likely occurs as a result of glucocorticoid effects
11
12 directly in lung epithelial cells. Using isolated epithelial cells of second trimester human
13
14 fetal lung, which are 90-95% pure, differentiation into type 2 cells is observed with
15
16 glucocorticoid treatment and is augmented by the presence of cAMP. The observed
17
18 responses include morphological differentiation with reduced glycogen and appearance
19
20 of lamellar bodies, induction of a variety of genes related to surfactant and other type 2
21
22 cell-specific functions, and stimulated synthesis and secretion of DSPC from cells (3).
23
24 Induction of several surfactant-related genes are mediated in full (LAMP3, a lamellar
25
26 body protein, and CEACAM6, a surfactant-binding protein) or in part (SFTPA, SFTPB,
27
28 SFTPC, ABCA3) by increased content of nuclear thyroid transcription factor 1 (TTF1,
29
30 NKX2-1), a key transcription factor in type 2 cell differentiation. Consistent with a
31
32 requirement for induction of TTF1, the transcription rate for CEACAM6 does not
33
34 increase until 7-12 h. TTF1 is expressed in epithelial cells but not fetal fibroblasts of
35
36 human fetal lung; glucocorticoids maximally increase TTF1 mRNA within 4 h and this
37
38 response is not blocked by an inhibitor of protein synthesis (cycloheximide) as occurs for
39
40 FPF in rat lung (5). Increased transcription of SFTPB, a type 2 cell-specific protein that
41
42 is critical for surfactant function, occurs within 2 hours and also is not blocked by
43
44 cycloheximide (6). A mechanistic model of glucocorticoid induction involving a fibroblast
45
46 factor would presumably involve binding of glucocorticoid to fibroblast glucocorticoid
47
48 receptors, translocation of the complex to the nucleus, induction, synthesis and secretion
49
50 of a mediating protein(s), binding (or uptake) of the protein in epithelial cells and
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52 transcriptional stimulation, directly or indirectly, of glucocorticoid target genes or
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54 posttranslational activation of proteins---a process that would require many hours. Thus,
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3 at least for TITF1 and SFTPB, which have been studied in some detail, the rapidity of
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5 the responses and independence from induction of a mediating protein are not
6
7 consistent with glucocorticoid effects via fibroblast-derived factor(s) in human lung. A
8
9 caveat to these observations is the current lack of evidence for a functional
10
11 glucocorticoid response element in surfactant protein genes, perhaps implying a
12
13 complex regulatory mechanism within type 2 cells.
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16 King et al (1) discuss 3 proteins as potential candidates for FPF activity observed
17
18 in rat lung: KGF (FGF7), leptin (LEP) and neuregulin (NRG1). Recently, we performed
19
20 RNAseq analysis of human fetal lung (23-24 wk) tissue before (preculture) and after
21
22 culture as explants in the presence or absence of budesonide, a potent synthetic
23
24 glucocorticoid (7). Explants are prepared by mincing tissue into $\sim 1\text{mm}^3$ pieces that are
25
26 cultured in serum-free medium. Explants contain all lung cell types, predominantly
27
28 epithelial cells and fibroblasts, and thus mimic the in vivo situation. Results for gene
29
30 expression of the putative FPF proteins and selected receptors are shown in the Table.
31
32 In preculture lung, leptin mRNA is not detected, NRG1 mRNA is present in low amounts,
33
34 and there is abundant FGF7 transcript; expression of receptors for each protein was
35
36 found. LEP mRNA was also not detected in earlier gene profiling of human fetal lung
37
38 epithelial cells cultured with/without glucocorticoid (7); these negative results for LEP
39
40 expression in mid-gestation human fetal lung are similar to those for late gestation fetal
41
42 lamb and contrast with late gestation rat (1). Culture of explants with budesonide for 4
43
44 days did not induce any of the genes and significantly repressed FGF7 by 4-fold, while a
45
46 number of known glucocorticoid-responsive genes were regulated by budesonide (7). By
47
48 contrast, as reviewed by King et al. (1), dexamethasone increases mRNA for both FGF7
49
50 and leptin in fetal rat lung fibroblasts, consistent with actinomycin sensitivity of FPF
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52 induction, while dexamethasone does not increase NRG1 mRNA in rat fibroblasts,
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54 suggesting that NRG1 is not FPF.
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3 Thus, studies in human lung suggest that many glucocorticoid effects on type 2
4 cell differentiation and surfactant production occur within epithelial cells and independent
5 of an induced factor in fibroblasts. Additionally, there is an apparent species differences
6 for LEP expression in fetal lung tissue of human and rat, perhaps on a developmental
7 basis. The RNAseq data do not support a role for induction FGF7, LEP or NRG1 in
8 mediating glucocorticoid effects in cultured human fetal lung. These observations
9 suggest caution in attempting to extrapolate findings in rats to humans, particularly with
10 regard to potential therapeutic approaches to enhance lung maturity in premature
11 infants.
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Table. Gene expression of putative FPF proteins and receptors in human fetal lung by RNAseq

Gene	Preculture mRNA (cpm) mean±sd	Explant Culture (budesonide/control)
LEP	<1	-
NRG1	3.8±1.6	0.71
FGF7	92.3±12.1	0.26*
LEPR	33.8±5.6	0.99
LEPROT	167.3±5.1	1.06
ERBB3	272.0±37.4	1.23
ERBB4	5.5±2.9	1.40
FGFR2	136.8±10.6	1.28

RNAseq data from 3 lungs of 23-24 wk gestation before and after culture for 4 days with/without 30 nM budesonide as described (7).

cpm, counts per million

* False discovery rate = 0.02